F. Fitzgerald H-3 (1937-1938) AE3 Sino-Tibetan
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511 As long as the Min Chia farmer keeps out of debt his
241 economic position is fairly satisfactory. Subsidiary crops,
434 grown often on the edges of the rice fields, or on some bank
262 of raised land which cannot be irrigated, provide both a variety of diet and a little cash. Tobacco, rather coarse in quality, is grown widely. Cabbages, carrots, onions, taro, a kind of turnip, artichokes, peas, haricot and long beans, and in recent years a few potatoes, add flavour to the rice bowl. Indigo for the common blue dye, pulse for lamp oil, and hemp for string, are always in demand. On dry ground some maize, sorghum and barley are grown. Many farmers have a few tea bushes in their kitchen gardens, and some mulberries, peas, peaches and apricots are produced for home consumption. The good quality fruit, however, citrus in winter, pears and peaches in summer, all comes from the other side of the lake.

241 For fertilisers the Min Chia depend on lake weed, pond weed, animal and human manure. No chemical fertilisers are in use and most Min Chia farmers do not seem to have ever heard of them. Oxen or water buffalo are used for ploughing, and occasionally donkeys are used for transporting the harvest to market, but most of the field work is done by the farmers themselves, their wives, and children. The plough ing of wet rice land is very heavy work, for which the water buffalo, an enormously powerful animal, is best suited. A buffalo can plough five *mu*—nearly an acre—in a day, which would require two oxen. The buffalo, however, is an expensive animal, worth about 50 or 60 Silver dollars a head (£2 5*s*. 0*d*.) and many farmers cannot afford them. The price of oxen is between 20 and 30 Silver dollars a head, but as two are needed to plough a rice field there is not much economy in using oxen.

462 Men and women do the same field work, except that the
241 heavy work of ploughing is left to the men. Women weed

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the fields, cultivate with the hoe, do most of the transplanting of rice, and assist the men at the harvest. They also bring the harvest back to the homestead. Marketing is usually left to the women who carry loads of produce to the city on their backs, settle down for the day to sell it, and return to the villages in the evening with the proceeds. This work is done both by married women and young girls. The Min Chia women are extremely strong, often doing porterage work which in other parts of China would only be done by men.

Most of the rice land is privately owned, but every village has some public land, usually attached to a temple, which is rented out at the usual rate of half the crop to the tenant and half to the public. The proceeds are used to maintain the village school, which is held in the temple itself, and any surplus may be applied either to some public work such as repairs to the temple, or for the expenses of a festival. The public also have the right of shooting and of hunting over all land, the spoil going to the hunter. This right does not mean very much in a closely cultivated area where game is scarce, and though the same free right of the chase applies to the mountain, the Min Chia make little use of it, partly because the control of fire-arms is strict, a license being required, and partly because they show no aptitude as hunters. The wooded slopes of T'sang Shan are the safe retreat of pheasants, hares, partridges, wild goat, deer, and the animals which prey upon them, wolves, leopards, and possibly tigers.[1]

The neglect of the hunting rights is characteristic of the Min Chia attitude to mountains. The entire area of Ts'ang

[1] No tiger has been reported on T'sang Shan for several years. Leopards are not plentiful, but wolves abound, and raid the farms on the plain for chickens, pigs, and even small children. They never hunt in packs, and will not attack an adult, but show no fear of man when encountered on the mountain.

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THE SOCIAL CUSTOMS OF THE TRIBES PEOPLE AS AFFECTED BY THEIR CLIMATIC AND GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT

A. THE CLIMATIC AND GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT OF LIFAN

131 Lifan ranks second in area among the 138 counties of Szechwan Province. It is situated at the northwest corner of Szechwan, with an indefinite boundary to the north in the wild expanse of grasslands. The Ta-chin River 大金川 (Big Gold River) acts as part of its western boundary, and also Sikang as its western neighbor. In the south, it is separated from Wenchwan 汶川 County by a continuous mountain range with its highest peak named Hsueh-lung-p'ao 雪隆袍 or the Snow Dragon Mountain, because it is perpetually covered by snow. The Min River 岷江 serves as part of its eastern boundary, and a mountain range divides Lifan from Sungpan 松潘 in the northeast.

133 The county is divided into three natural regions according to the three large river systems: the Min in the east, the Ta-chin to the west and the Yellow River to the north. The three natural regions are really three drainage basins. They are the drainage basins of the Cha-ku 雜谷 and the Hei-shui 黑水 or Black Rivers as tributaries of the Min River in the southeast, the drainage basin of the So-mo 梭磨 River as tributary to the Ta-chin River in the west, and the drainage basin of the Mei River 梅 as tributary to the Yellow River in the north.

The topography, on the whole, may be classified as a dissected plateau, and it is sloping from the west to the east. The altitude of Wei-chow 威州, the eastern entrance of Lifan, is 4,500 ft. and that of Ma-tang 馬塘, about 150 miles west of Weichow, is over 10,000 ft. But this highland is badly dissected by streams and has formed many deep valleys. In the drainage basins of the Cha-ku and Black Rivers, the valleys are narrow and deep, while those in the other two drainage areas are broad and shallow. For example, while the So-mo and other valleys in the grasslands are all open U-shaped, those in the southeast area are entrenched V-shaped valleys.

The result is that very little flat land is to be found in the lower altitudes of the southeast. In the grasslands the lands are comparatively level, but the [132] altitudes are high, and the temperature is low throughout the year. Even during the height of summer, the night temperatures are usually around 40° ●241 During the day the temperature might rise to 70° or more. Thus the growing 133 season is too short for the ordinary types of agricultural crops, and both the

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133 241 relief and the low temperatures limit the cultivation on any large scale. Most of the cultivated lands are located in the southeast, in the drainage area of the Cha-ku and the Black Rivers, on gentle slopes between an altitude of 5,000 to 9,000 ft.

133 241 433 Roughly speaking, over 50% of the total agricultural food stuffs produced in Lifan are produced along the Cha-Ku valley, between Weichow and Cha-ku-nao 茶谷垴, a distance of not more than 50 miles. And these crops are mostly grown on slopes rather than on alluvial plains at the valley bottoms. The total area of alluvial plains at the valley bottom between Weichow and Cha-ku-nao is smaller in area than the cultivated mountain slopes of even one mountain settlement, as for instance Chia-shan-chai 佳山寨. This shows the insignificance of alluvial lowlands and the importance of slope cultivation in the region. Besides the Cha-ku valley, the Black River valley which is the other tributary to the Min also has some fertile slope lands under cultivation. As all the valleys are separated by high mountains with steep slopes, the cultivated area on slopes is nowhere very extensive.

241 132 433 Besides the topographic limits of land utilization, climatic influences are also very strong. Though the climate varies from valley to valley, yet it is controlled by definite climatic laws. In regions where the altitude is below 6,000 ft., the summer temperature can go up as high as 86° F (30° C) and the minimum temperature during the hottest month, August, could go down to 57° F (14° C). On the average, the temperatures for six months, from the middle of October to the middle of April, are below the critical temperature for vegetation growth. That leaves a growing season of only about six months.

In the grasslands the annual average temperature is below 30° F. Even during the height of summer, the maximum temperature goes only as high as 74° or 75° during the day, and can go as far down as 33° F. The growing season is thus shortened to less than four months.

As far as moisture is concerned, the slopes that are below an altitude of 6,000 ft., being hidden between high mountain walls, are usually very dry, because little moisture can reach them. The average relative humidity for August last summer was below 50%. Between an altitude of 6,000 to 7,000, due to the orographic effect of air that is rising along the slopes, the average relative humidity for August last summer was below 60%, while the slopes above 7,000 ft. during the same period had an average relative humidity of about 80%. Thus during the severe drought in the summer, while the crops on the lower slopes were all withered and with no hope for any harvest, the oats, potatoes, and barley were flourishing on the upper slopes. The relative humidity is still higher as the altitude goes higher until it reaches the altitude of about 10,000 feet, when it begins to decrease again. Therefore, according to moisture distribution, the mountainous country is classified into four zones: the arid zone, the semi-arid zone, the humid zone, and the sub-humid zone.

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All the slopes that are below an altitude of 6,000 ft. belong to the arid zone, where cultivation without irrigation is difficult. Most of these slopes are barren or covered by only a thin mantle of scrub. At an altitude between 6,000 and 8,000 ft. is the semi-arid zone, where agriculture could be carried on without irrigation, but the situation is usually precarious. Unfortunately, most of the cultivable lands are situated in this zone. The dominating crops between 6,000 and 7,000 ft. are corn, beans, and wheat; and those grown between 7,000 and 8,000 ft. are mostly barley, oats, buckwheat, and potatoes.

From an altitude between 8,000 to over 9,000 ft. is the wet zone, and this is the forest zone. Above the forest zone is the sub-humid zone, and this is the grass land area where the high degree of wetness and the shortness of the growing season limit agriculture and favor the grazing of cattle. This is also the homeland of a great variety of medicinal herbs.

The limitations of relief and climate have in their turn affected the nature of the soil. Soil on the upper slopes, where agriculture is carried on, is subject to severe erosion; while soil on the valley bottoms is liable to be washed away by streams. Therefore, the most spectacular feature of the soil is that of its instability. There is hardly any well-developed mature soil to be found anywhere. In the grasslands, the soil is better developed, but the temperature limits its utilization.

This is only a brief summary of the setting of the stage upon which a group of tribes people are carrying on their drama of life. Now, we will proceed to examine the tribes who are staged there.

B. THE TRIBES OF LI-FAN COUNTY

The total population of Li-fan county is about 80,000, which is about one-fourth the population of Chengtu. Of course there is no accurate census to tell the truth. This is only a rough estimate from the figures given by the Szechwan Commission of Education. Out of the total population, about one-eighth are Chinese and seven-eighths are tribes people. They are the Ch'iang羌, the Gia-rung嘉戎, the Fan番, and the Black River peoples. They are all of Tibetan descent, with a combined or fused Tibetan-Chinese culture at different stages of development.

The Ch'iang people used to occupy a much larger area than they do now. Archaeological finds indicate that they had spread as far north as Kansu before the Han dynasty. During the Ming dynasty, because they made trouble, the Tibetans were called in to conquer them, and finally there were cornered into a smaller and smaller area between the Chinese on the plains, and the Tibetans in the mountains. At present the Ch'iang people are on the verge of disappearing, and their culture is already half-forgotten. The Gia-rung people are the Tibetan conquerors who have taken to agriculture, and the Fan are the Tibetans who have come to stay in the grasslands and are still leading a nomadic type of life. The Black River people are a mixed people of Fan, Gia-rung and Ch'iang. They are half agricultural, but still rely on their cattle for much of their living.

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301 She[1] carries all her woredly possessions in the form of decorations in her hair,
436 and around her eeck and wrists. That is the reason why paper money is of no use in this region.

241 In regard to shoes, the Ch'iang people are asually bare-footed, or wear straw sandals. The Gia-rung people wear cloth shoes of the Taing dynasty style, and the Fan people and the Black River people wear boots. This is due to the differences in the winter temperature.

262 There is no tribal difference in foodstuffs, but rather a difference in crops according to differences in the attitude. Both the Ch'iang and Gia-rung who live below an altitude of 8,000 ft. use corn as their staple food. For those who live above 8,000, their cheap food supply is Irish potatoes and barley and oats. For the Fan people in the grasslands, it is barley flour and butter and milk, and practically no green vegetables. The reason for the corn diet of people living below 8,000 ft. altitude is that mountain farms are generally small and their improved land is still more limited. The farmers are poor, and therefore they are under compulsion to raise the crop which will give them the most food, and not crops which are usually more nutritious. For people who live above 8,000 ft., the humidity is higher and the temperature lower; therefore, natural conditions are not suitable for the cultivation of corn, which requires much sunshine, but is favorable for oats and potatoes. Therefore these people live on potatoes instead of corn.

•241 In the grasslands agriculture is prohibited by geographical limitations.
264 People have to trade for barley flour mixed with bean powder. It is called Chum-Pa 糌粑. At meal time they just mix it with tea or milk, and that is their staple food. They eat with their hands; they do not bother with chopstick

264 The manner of eating is greatly affected by the distance from the Chinese,
352 The Ch'iang and Gia-rung tribes, who are nearer to the Chinese, use chopsticks, and their kitchens are built upon a double pattern; that is, they have the Chinese kitchen arrangement, and at the same time also have fire places in the centers of ther kitchens. The Gia-rung who live in the upper valley of the Cha-ku River, and the Black River people, and the Fan people, have only the fireplace and very little furniture in the home; no tables, no chairs, and no beds, but they use furs and woolen mats as bedding.

272 Tea seems to be the life blood of all. Tea drinking to the people of Li-fan county is far more important even than tea drinking is to the English.

D. SOCIAL CUSTOMS IN RELATION TO GROUP LIVING.

1. GRAZING COOPERATIVES

241 Among the Ch'iang and Gia-rung in the drainage area of the Min in the southeast, the people are mainly agricultural. They cultivate the slopes between the high mountains and the deep valleys. The cultivable area is naturally limited, and every inch is valuable.

[1] [the Fan woman, --Analyst]

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Ch'iang

done in the houses or in Chinese temples or on the streets. Money may be paid, or exchange may be accomplished by means of barter. If two objects are bartered and they are of unequal value, the balance may be paid in cash or another object may be thrown in to make things even.

The principal market places are in the Chinese cities. Here the Ch'iang bring produce--firewood, corn, beans, wheat, buckwheat, pepper, walnuts fruit, vegetables, chickens, pork, mutton, eggs, hides, etc. With the money they purchase salt, cotton cloth, vegetable oil, and other commodities which they take home.

The interest paid on loans is very high. It varies from sixty or seventy to over three hundred per cent. This is one of the handicaps now faced by the Ch'iang. If the borrower does not pay, the lender sometimes sends a poor person to live in the home of the borrower and eat his food, smoke his tobacco, drink his tea, and sleep in his bed. This may cost the orrower a lot of money but in the end he must pay all the money owed, both capital and interest. He is not credited with what the poor man has cost him. Sometimes the lender comes and takes away a pig, a goat, or a cow. Often the interest is paid in corn. For a loan of one hundred dollars the yearly interest is from two to six dou or pecks of corn, so that the rate of interest depends on the market value of the corn.

3. Habitations and Villages.

The houses are built of unhown stones plastered together with clay. Advantage is taken of the flat and smooth sides, so that the walls of the houses appear smooth, and the corners square. There are two or more stories. The first story consists of a small open court and rooms or pens for the domestic animals. The floors of the pens are covered with small twigs, grass, or straw, which are trend upon for weeks and mixed with the offal of the animals, and later is used for fertilizer. People live on the second floor where dogs, cats, chickens, and sometimes other domestic animals and fowls range. The roofs are flat, and at the rear of each roof is an open shed in which corn and other grains are stored, and where the women sometimes do their weaving. Similar stone houses are widely used in the highlands of western Szechwan, Si Kang, and eastern Tibet. On the roof the grain is dried, flailed and winnowed, and here in fair weather the inmates visit and look around at

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Ch'iang

4. Occupations.

463 [423] [462] All Ch'iang are farmers. Even the priests and local rulers have fields which they farm or rent to others. The land, houses, and tools are owned not by individuals, but by families, and all the members of the family cooperate in the work. Men do the plowing, for there is a taboo against women doing so. Men and women cooperate in hoeing, planting, weeding, fertilizing, reaping, flailing, winnowing, husking, wood gathering, etc. Women and girls generally do the cooking, sewing and spinning, and only women weave. There are some blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, and painters, but these are farmers who work also at these trades when there is a demand for their labor. There are no silversmiths or goldsmiths, for silver and gold ornaments are bought ready-made or made to order in a Chinese city. Few if any of the Ch'iang are merchants, although there are Ch'iang homes where matches, vegetable oil, wine, and a few other commodities are sold. Even the priests are farmers who have learned to perform the sacred ceremonies when required.

313 Wood is gathered in the forests on the mountainsides. Groups of men and women and boys and girls often go out and return together, singing as they work. Much of the winter supply is gathered in the fall after the crops have been harvested.

482 All loads, even of water or of wood, are carried on their backs. Families that are poor sometimes supplement their incomes by carrying loads on their backs to Kuanshien and to other distant places.

226 There is little fishing, probably because there are not many fish in the mountain streams. Fishing is sometimes done with a baited hook and line, or by a basket-like trap into which the fish enter and are unable to escape.

224 Nearly all the men enjoy hunting, and some who are expert hunt a great deal. Most of the hunting is done in the late fall and winter after the crops have been harvested. Generally a few men with several dogs cooperate and share the spoils. Leopards, wild boar, deer, mountain goats, musk deer, foxes, pheasants and other game are found. Even monkeys are killed and eaten.

241 When fresh land is desired for cultivation, the trees, brush, and grass in a section of the forest are cut down and burnt. This gives a rich soil for a few years, after which the land may be deserted

5:Graham E-5 (1933, 1941)1942 AE3 Sino-Tibetan
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Ch'iang

and a new plot cut and burnt. This practice is widespread in the mountains of West China. 241

5. Food.

The products of the soil are wheat, corn, buckwheat, millet, barley, beans, peas, potatoes, squashes, turnips, Chinese cabbage, celery and other vegetables, besides walnuts and fruits. Honey-bees are common. Often the bees are robbed of their honey so late that the bees starve to death during the winter. The domestic animals are dogs, cats, horses, cattle, sheep goats, pigs, chickens, and ducks. The main product of the soil is corn. Rice is not raised even in the valleys. 241 231 262 [243]

The above paragraph gives a clue to the food that is eaten. Most families can not afford to buy rice, which must be carried in from Kuanasien. Instead a great deal of corn is eaten. This may be made into cakes, or boiled almost dry and eaten like rice in bowls with chopsticks. Soya beans are made into bean curd, and white and brown beans are boiled. Wheat, buckwheat, and barley may be made into biscuits or cakes always unleavened, for there is no leavened bread among the Ch'iang. Wild fruit vegetables, and berries are sometimes gathered and eaten, and vegetables are sometimes dried and used in the winter time. Any kind of domestic animal or wild game may be killed and eaten with relish, excepting that there is a taboo against killing or eating cattle because they are used for plowing. Eggs are a luxury to be eaten on special occasions. On the whole the Ch'iang do not enjoy a well-balanced diet. 262 252

6. Clothing.

Most of the clothing of the Ch'iang is made of undyed hemp cloth which is woven by the women. Straw sandals are used less than among the Chinese or the Wa Sau. The women make cloth shoes that are more comfortable and more durable. The shoes for dress-up occasions are ornamented with vari-colored flowers and butterflies which are embroidered on the shoes by the women. Stockings are seldom worn. Instead, woolen puttees are wrapped first about the feet, then about the lower legs to the knees. 291

Both men and women wear trousers. The upper garment is a homespun hemp gown. In the front it reaches just below the knees. The gown of a women is lower behind, reaching almost to the

311 in between the dry, treeless mountains. But the mountainous country, too, can feed the tough and industrious population of Chinese and Mohammedan farmers, provided there are /4/ peaceful political conditions and a settled administration, although naturally these highlands (1500 - 3000 meters) cannot be nearly as densely populated as the lower, warmer loess regions of central and eastern North China.

133 South of the loess country in Kansu the boundary toward Szechuan
177 is formed by a mighty mountain range over 5,000 meters high, a part of the K'un-lun system. From the north, only unimportant branches of Chinese culture have penetrated into these mountains, since here the conditions necessary for Chinese agriculture are lacking. Neither the narrow valleys that have eaten into limestone, primary rock or granite, nor the undulating uplands more than 3,000
[361] meters high are suitable for the Chinese farmer. Sedentary Tibetans or Fantzu (following the Kansu colloquial usage, we shall subsequently refer to the "Tibetans" as "Fantzu") live in the valleys and in the
● [241] lower parts of the highland. Even though the summers here are short, crops of Tibetan barley (ch'ing-ku), peas and rape are relatively good. Thus they are able to provide themselves as well as the nomad tribes
231 living still higher up, with the indispensable barley flour. But these Sedentary Fantzu lead a somewhat different life from the Chinese farmer, for besides cultivating their fields, they also raise animals. The yak serves them as mount and beast of burden and gives them milk and butter, which makes them less dependent on crops in bad years, and provides them with an inestimable source of health and energy in this cold mountain climate.

133 You are struck by these conditions if you travel from the provincial
361 capital of Lanchow south through the district of Ho-chou (modern name Lin-hsia) to the famous Labrang monastery which is south of the /5/ loess region in the mountains. You reach the valley of the T'ao-ho from the Huang-ho Valley by traveling through a loess region inhabited mainly by Mohammedans, and through a sparsely settled granite mountain range with a crest not quite 3,000 meters high. South of the T'ao-ho is a deeply furrowed loess landscape that reaches almost 3,000 meters. This is bounded on the other side by the Hsia-ho, and is inhabited by Mohammedans. In the Hsia-ho Valley the percentage of Chinese is again larger, but Mohammedanism has made more and more headway in the course of the last 30 years, partly after very bloody insurrections which were difficult to suppress. This is probably the main reason why the Chinese government has shifted the boundary between Kansu and Ch'inghai farther west.

631 About one kilometer down the valley from this monastery city, a
443 small market town arose, inhabited mainly by Mohammedans. Nine
years ago the Chinese government made this the capital of the dis-
241 trict of Hsia-ho. Li An-che 5) gives a detailed description of Labrang.
231/7/ The Tibetans who live around Labrang are farmers. They grow Tibetan barley in the Hsia-ho Valley and its lateral valleys. If conditions are favorable, they also plant some wheat, as well as oats, peas, broad beans, rape and flax. They also raise yaks, sheep, goats, horses and pigs.

133 Not far south of Labrang the region of the high Tibetan steppe begins. Its southern boundary toward Hsik'ang and Szechuan is formed by the mighty Min-shan, a portion of the K'un-lun system. West of Labrang are the highlands of the Ch'inghai Province (Kokonor).

133 Above 3,000 meters vegetation gradually comes to an end, not,
241 however, peasant settlements. Even in the treeless, flat, trough-
231 shaped high valleys between 3,000 and 3,500 meters there are every-
361 where small villages of sedentary Tibetans. Here they grow Tibetan barley and oats, often the two crops mixed, as well as rape. With increasing altitude, cultivation gradually grows less, and from about 3,500 meters upward we find grassland inhabited only by stock farmers. (1)

1. Cf Ekvall 4), page 29.

177 Although the Tibetans who live here are under Chinese administration, they are nevertheless very independent of the Chinese, and are not very much influenced by Chinese culture. They are divided into individual tribes, one of which (the Mewu-Fantzu) we shall describe more closely in the following account.

131 The territory of the Mewu-Fantzu lies south of the large lamasery of He-tso (2) and east of the "old" city of T'ao-chou. The tribe

2. Tafel 2) Vol. II gives a good illustration of the He-tso monastery.

of the Mewu-Fantzu consists of sedentary as well as nomadic Tibetans. /8/

123 After I had lived in Labrang and He-tso for some time, I visited two monasteries belonging to the Mewu tribe: the old and the new Mewu monasteries (Mewu-chiu-szu and Mewu-hsin-szu). Then I pitched my tent 18 or 20 kilometers south of the latter monastery in a shallow valley of about 3,950 meters elevation. On the slope

direction of their sorcerers and elders. This, this writer believes, is the most valuable part of the Ch'iang culture.

/10/ Although the material life and the social system of the Ch'iang are more Sinicized, yet we can still find in them some characteristics of the Ch'iang culture. The Ch'iang tribesmen are now mostly farmers, but they have not yet abandoned the habit of "shepherds". It is said that before the Communists' invasion, their pastoral economy was often more important than their agriculture. Judging from the fact that the Ch'iang tribesmen now remain both pastoral and agricultural, we may say that the statement in history books that the Ch'iang tribesmen were either aborigines or immigrants is reliable. They have not changed the custom of "living beside a hill and building houses with stones," nor have they changed their anarchic and classless social order, if this is what is meant by the "non-existence of king-subject and superior-inferior relationships.." As to the assertion that "they have no definite family names, some use their father's given names and mother's surnames as their family names," it is also attested by the names of ruined places which were derived from family names, and by the way they adopt their individual names. Economically, the Ch'iang obviously have reached the stage of having family units. Yet, from the standpoint of their custom of working together and their spirit of mutual concern, they retain some habits of the clan age. Also, according to the marriage code, the clan is still a unit in exogamy. (People of the same clan are not allowed to marry each other.)

Nowadays a Ch'iang village is no longer identical with a clan. There are several different clans in almost every village. (It is said that before the Manchus conquered Ching-ch'uan, there were still some villages with only one clan.) However, each village has its specific local god, sorcerers, and festival activities. This is due to the fact that the traditional culture has not changed although the composition of the village population has. There are many cases like this in anthropology. Now let us take a look at the content of the cultural heritage of the Ch'iang tribesmen.

I. Analysis of the Gods Worshiped by the Ch'iang

The Ch'iang are a ghost-and god-worshiping people. They believe that there are gods everywhere, such as family gods, local gods, and the individual or local guardian gods. If divided according to their nature, there are good gods and evil spirits, if classified in

2: Rock K-5 (1934-) 1947 AF16 Southwest China AF16
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CHAPTER IV

WESTERN AND NORTH-WESTERN YUNG-NING

1. AGRICULTURE, ACCESS AND INHABITANTS

Yung-ning 永寧

S ST 311 [161] The most important part of Yung-ning from an agricultural standpoint, is of course its plain (PLATE 220), which to-day supports 300 families, although 1,000 families could subsist there if rice were cultivated, and all arable land were utilized. Only one half of the plain is now under cultivation, and rice is prohibited from being grown for political reasons. Maize, barley, buckwheat and round peas are the main crops. The plain has a plentiful water supply, as the Hli gyi or K'ai-chi Ho 開基河 [also called Lo-chi Ho 勒吉河 pronounced Le-chi Ho in Yung-ning] winds through it, receiving several affluents in its course over the plain. The latter is at an elevation of 9,500 feet, is perfectly flat, and extends east to the foot of Lion Mountain (Seng-ge ga-mu). In the remote past the Yung-ning plain was undoubtedly a lake, similar to the Lu-ku Lake, which lies 100 feet higher. The plain is surrounded by mountains with many valleys debouching into it; the only outlet is the valley which leads into the Ch'ien-so country in Ssu-ch'uan. The eastern and north-eastern end of the plain is still marshy.

S ST [24] [312]

The next place of importance is the long Tsui-yi valley called Wa-erh-lo 挖耳羅 in Chinese, which extends south of Wua-ha Shan, west into the Yangtze. This is a very fertile valley and rice is planted in the middle upper half; the lower part is a dry, arid canyon with steep walls; the head of the valley is wooded.

To the west of Yung-ning is another long valley called Luë-dzu law-k'aw, which also extends into the Yangtze, with another valley joining it called Hĕr-dü, the Har-lĕr-dü of the Na-khi. These valleys unite a short distance before debouching west into the Yangtze, south of San-chiang-k'ou 三江口. The remaining arable land is along the Yangtze, especially at Pu-chio 卜脚 or Law-k'a-khi-llü [also called P'u-dyü]; then along the Zho Chhu on the Hsi-k'ang border in the west of Yung-ning, and at Pa-erh-ch'iao 壩耳橋, south of Yung-ning; and finally the few fields along the shore of the Lu-ku Hu or Yung-ning Lake.

The rest of the country is exceedingly mountainous. The highest peaks are on Wua-ha Shan, which is the northern part of the Yao Shan to the east of Yung-ning. These reach 15,500 feet or more in height.

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Access. — The main approaches to Yung-ning from the south are from Yung-pei, north via Lang-ch'ü chou, the present Ning-lang 寧浪; then from Li-chiang via the Yangtze at either T'o-lä-tsu or Chiang-wai 江外, up the Tsui-yi valley opposite Chiang-wai which is the shortest route. The northern route is via Feng-k'o 俸可 or Shang-feng-k'o 上俸可.